REMARKS

Claims 88-98 are pending. Claims 1-87 have been cancelled. Consideration of the remarks provided below is respectfully requested.

Status of the Case

The last Office Action in this case was mailed on June 13, 2005 and it indicated it was a final action. Although not explicitly stated in the present Action, Applicants understand that the Office has withdrawn finality and reopened prosecution to address the present issue of obviousness.

Withdrawn Rejections

Applicants gratefully acknowledge the Office's withdrawing the utility, enablement, and the written description rejections. Applicants also acknowledge the withdrawal of the anticipation and obviousness rejections based on the Tang, *et al.* reference.

The Pending Claims are Inventive over Williams, *et al.*

Claims 88-98 stand rejected under 35 U.S.C. 103(a) as allegedly being unpatentable over Williams, *et al.*, (1998) Molecular Microbiology 27(1):171-186 in view of Campbell, Queen, *et al.* (US Patent No. 5,530,101), and Reiter, *et al.* (U.S. Patent No. 6,261,791). Applicants traverse this rejection.

The examiner bears the burden of establishing a prima facie case of obviousness. *In re Rijckaert*, 9 F.3d 1531, 1532, (Fed. Cir. 1993). Only if this burden is met does the burden of coming forward with rebuttal argument or evidence shift to the applicant. *Id.* at 1532. When the references cited by the examiner fail to establish a *prima facie* case of obviousness, the rejection is improper and will be overturned. *In re Fine*, 837 F.2d 1071, 1074 (Fed. Cir. 1988).

To establish a *prima facie* case of obviousness a three-prong test must be met. First, the prior art must reference must teach or suggest all the claim limitations. *In re Royka*, 490 F.2d 981,

985 (CCPA 1974). Second, there must be a reasonable expectation of success found in the prior art. *In re Vaeck*, 947 F.2d 488 (Fed. Cir. 1991). Third, there must be some suggestion or motivation, either in the references or in the knowledge generally available among those of ordinary skill in the art, to modify the reference. *In re Rouffet*, 149 F.3d 1350, 1357 (Fed. Cir. 1998). The references cited by the Office in support of the present rejection do not establish a *prima facie* case of obviousness because they do not satisfy the three pronged test.

The Office has failed to articulate a *prima facie* case of obviousness because it has cited references which, taken as a group or individually, do not teach or suggest all the limitations of the claimed invention. The Office alleged in the Action that the Williams, *et al.* reference disclosed the amino acid sequence of SEQ ID NO:728. It should be notes, the paper itself does not disclose the amino acid sequence of the SEQ ID NO: 728 protein but instead references GenBank accession number AF025441. *See* Williams, *et al.* at page 173. As deposited with GenBank, accession number AF025441 contains 2 additional amino acids at the amino terminus of the protein as compared to the amino acid sequence of SEQ ID NO:728. A copy of this sequence is available on the world wide web at http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/viewer.fcgi?db=nucleotide&val=2815609. Accordingly, contrary to the Office's assertion the subject matter disclosed by Williams, *et al.* is not 100% identical to that of the protein sequence recited in the pending claims. The sequence used for the comparison with SEQ ID NO:728 as shown in Exhibit A of the Office Action is actually GenBank accession number BC015050, which was not submitted until October 1, 2001, which is after the priority date of the present application. As such, this sequence is not available as prior art against the pending claims. A copy of the sequence submission for BC015050 is available at http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/viewer.fcgi?db=nucleotide&val=15929199.

Applicants submit that the sequence referred to in the Williams, *et al.* reference differs from the claimed sequence and thus, this reference does not supply a critical portion of the Office's *prima facie* argument. Moreover, none of the other references ameliorate this deficiency in the Office's argument. As such, the Office's rejection fails teach or suggest all the limitations of the claimed invention.

The Office's rejection further fails to articulate a *prima facie* case of obviousness because one of ordinary skill in the art would not have had a reasonable expectation of success in achieving the claimed invention relying on the Williams, *et al.* reference. As noted above, there is a two amino acid difference between the protein sequence referred to in the Williams, *et al.* reference (AF025441) and that of SEQ ID NO:728. Applicants submit that this 2 amino acid difference result in a protein having patentably distinct antigenic properties.

Those of ordinary skill in the art recognize that protein chemistry is an unpredictable art. For example, it has been shown that a conservative substitution of a single lysine residue in the acidic fibroblast growth factor with a glutamic acid led to a substantial loss of heparin binding and biological activity of the protein. Burgress, *et al.* (1990) J. Cell Biol. 111:2129-2138 (Exhibit A). Presumably, the loss of function resulting from this conservative mutation is produced by a shift in the three dimensional structure of the protein. Similarly, it has been reporting that replacement of the aspartic acid residue at position 47 of transforming growth factor alpha with a serine or glutamic acid sharply reduced the biological activity of the protein. Lazar, *et al.* (1988) Mol. Cell. Biol. 8:1247-1252 (Exhibit B). These references demonstrate that even a single amino acid change in a protein's sequence can have dramatic affects on the biological characteristics of that protein.

Here, the sequence reported by Williams, *et al.* has two additional residues at the amino terminus of the protein. If one were to synthesis a protein with this sequence, it is likely that the resulting protein would fold in a manner that differed from that of SEQ ID NO: 728. It is also likely that the protein disclosed by Williams, *et al.* would display different antigens and epitopes as a result of this differential protein folding. Thus, in view of the unpredictable nature of the protein chemical arts, one of ordinary skill in the art would not have a reasonable expectation of success in producing and antibody that bound to SEQ ID NO: 728 using the sequence taught by the Williams, *et al.* article. Accordingly, this reference does not support the present obviousness rejection. Applicants further note that none of the other references cited in this rejection ameliorate the deficiencies of the Williams, *et al.* rejection.

The last prong of the obviousness test asks whether one of ordinary skill in the art would have been motivated to modify the prior art to achieve the claimed invention. Here, there is absolutely no motivation to be found, either in the references or the art as a whole, to delete the additional two amino acid residues found at the amino terminus of the Williams, *et al.* article to arrive at SEQ ID NO: 728. Moreover, none of the other references ameliorate this deficiency in the Office's argument. Therefore, because Williams, *et al.* does not teach the same amino acid sequence as that recited in SEQ ID NO: 728, the Williams, *et al.* reference does not support an obviousness rejection of the claims.

As discussed above, the Williams, *et al.* article does not teach the same protein as that recited in the pending claims. Campbell, Queen, *et al.* (U.S. Patent No. 5,530,101), and Reiter, *et al.* (U.S. Patent No. 6,261,791) all fail to cure this deficiency of the Williams, *et al.* article. Because the Williams, *et al.* article, whether taken alone or in combination with the other references cited, fails to teach or suggest all the limitations of the pending claims, fails to provide a reasonable expectation of success, and fails to provide a motivation to modify the cited references to achieve the claimed invention, the cited references fail to support a prima facie case of obviousness. In view of this, the present rejection should be withdrawn and the pending claims should be advanced to issuance. Applicants invite the Examiner to telephone the undersigned at the number given below with any questions this response may raise.

In the event the U.S. Patent and Trademark office determines that an extension and/or other relief is required, Applicant petitions for any required relief including extensions of time and authorizes the Commissioner to charge the cost of such petitions and/or other fees due in connection with the filing of this document to Deposit Account No. 03-1952 referencing docket no. 511582002800. However, the Commissioner is not authorized to charge the cost of the issue fee to the Deposit Account.

Dated: February 27, 2006

Respectfully submitted,

By ____________________

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Possible Dissociation of the Heparin-binding and Mitogenic Activities of Heparin-binding (Acidic Fibroblast) Growth Factor-1 from Its Receptor-binding Activities by Site-directed Mutagenesis of a Single Lysine Residue

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Abstract. The fibroblast or heparin-binding growth factors (HBGFs) are thought to be modulators of cell growth and migration, angiogenesis, wound repair, neurite extension, and mesoderm induction. A better understanding of the structural basis for the different activities of these proteins should facilitate the development of agonists and antagonists of specific HBGF activities and identification of the signal transduction pathways involved in the mechanisms of action of these growth factors. Chemical modification studies of Harper and Lobb (Harper, J. W., and R. R. Lobb. 1988. *Biochemistry*. 27:671–678) implicated lysine 132 in HBGF-1 (acidic fibroblast growth factor) as being important to the heparin-binding, receptor-binding, and mitogenic activities of the protein. We changed lysine 132 to a glutamic acid residue by site-directed mutagenesis of the human cDNA and expressed the mutant protein in *Escherichia coli* to obtain sufficient quantities for functional studies. Replacement of this lysine with glutamic acid reduces the apparent affinity of HBGF-1 for immobilized heparin (elutes at 0.45 M NaCl vs. 1.1 M NaCl for wild-type). Mitogenic assays established two points: (*a*) human recombinant HBGF-1 is highly dependent on the presence of heparin for optimal mitogenic activity, and (*b*) the change of lysine 132 to glutamic acid drastically reduces the specific mitogenic activity of HBGF-1. The poor mitogenic activity of the mutant protein does not appear to be due to a reduced affinity for the HBGF receptor. Similarly, the mutant HBGF-1 can stimulate tyrosine kinase activity and induce protooncogene expression. Differences in the biological properties of the wild-type and mutant proteins were observed in transfection studies. Mutant HBGF-1 expression in transfected NIH 3T3 cells did not induce the same transformed phenotype characteristic of cells expressing wild-type HBGF-1. Together these data indicate that different functional properties of HBGF-1 may be dissociated at the structural level.

THE heparin-binding growth factor (HBGF)[1] family presently consists of seven structurally related polypeptides (3). The cDNAs for each have been cloned and sequenced. Two of the proteins, HBGF-1 and HBGF-2, have been characterized under many different names, but most often as acidic and basic fibroblast growth factor, respectively. Three sequence-related oncogenes have been identified; the hst oncogene was discovered based on its ability to transform NIH 3T3 cells (9, 25, 38, 45); the int-2 oncogene was first identified as a gene activated by mouse mammary tumor virus (7, 10, 11) and the FGF-5 oncogene was identified using NIH 3T3 transformation assays (46, 47). Recently a gene termed FGF-6 was identified by screening a mouse cosmid library with a human hst probe under reduced stringency and was shown to be capable of transforming NIH 3T3 cells (32). Finally, an epithelial cell–specific growth factor termed KGF or FGF-7 has been identified and its cDNA cloned and sequenced (13).

Functions associated with HBGF-1 and HBGF-2 include stimulation of mitogenesis, chemotaxis, mesoderm induction, neurite extension, and plasminogen activator activity. These HBGFs also induce angiogenesis in vivo and accelerate wound repair (for reviews see references 3, 18, 27, 36). The mechanisms by which HBGFs promote these functions are poorly understood but may include activation of protein tyrosine kinase activity (8, 15, 20), phosphorylation of phospholipase C-γ (6), and activation of immediate-early gene transcription (17). In addition, both HBGF-1 and HBGF-2 have been shown to be relatively resistant to degradation after internalization by receptor-mediated endocytosis (14, 24,

1. *Abbreviation used in this paper*: HBGF, heparin-binding growth factor.

34). Intact growth factor persists intracellularly for several hours and large fragments (15,000 and 10,000 M_r for HBGF-1; 16,000 M_r for HBGF-2) are detectable after as many as 24 h. Further, nuclear or nucleolar localization of HBGF-2 has been observed (2, 35).

Despite the identification of additional members of the HBGF family and a broad range of cells and tissues that contain the growth factors, and despite the availability of large quantities of recombinant protein and increased knowledge of the broad spectrum of activities of potential biological significance that can be attributed to the HBGFs, relatively little is known regarding the relationship of these highly conserved structures to any of their known functions. Baird et al. (1) reported the synthesis of 25 peptides, which together encompass and overlap the entire sequence of HBGF-2 as described by Ueno et al. (42). They reported the identification of two functional domains in the primary structure of HBGF-2 based on the abilities of synthetic peptides to interact with HBGF receptor, bind radiolabeled heparin in a solid phase assay, and inhibit HBGF-2 stimulation of thymidine incorporation into DNA. Using the numbering system of the authors (which does not correspond to full length HBGF-2) statistically significant functional activities could be assigned to peptides corresponding to residues 24–68 and 106–115 of HBGF-2. Similarly, Schubert et al. (39) demonstrated that peptides corresponding to residues 1–24, 24–68, and 93–120 of HBGF-2 are able to stimulate substratum adhesion of PC12 cells. We have shown that a synthetic peptide corresponding to residues 49–72 of HBGF-1 (using numbering of 1–154 for full length HBGF-1) is able to compete with HBGF-1 for heparin binding in a gel overlay assay (33). This region is homologous to one of the regions of HBGF-2 (residues 24–68) described above as possessing heparin-binding activity.

To date, the most complete and informative studies documenting the effects of chemical modification of any HBGF on function are those of Harper and Lobb (19). Briefly, they were able to show that limited reductive methylation of bovine HBGF-1 with formaldehyde and cyanoborohydride resulted in stoichiometric methylation only of lysine 132 (using 1–154 numbering for full length HBGF-1). They reported 90% modification of this residue, with 60% dimethylysine. The modified protein exhibited significantly reduced apparent affinity for immobilized heparin (eluted at ~0.7 M NaCl vs. ~1.2 M NaCl for unmodified HBGF-1), a fourfold reduction in its ability to stimulate DNA synthesis in NIH 3T3 fibroblasts and a similar reduction in its ability to compete with labeled ligand in a radioreceptor assay. A lysine residue is found at this position of HBGF-1 and HBGF-2 of all species characterized to date. Together these data implicate a crucial role for lysine 132 in several of the known functions of HBGF-1.

In this report we address the role of lysine 132 in HBGF-1 function using site-directed mutagenesis of this position to a glutamic acid. This approach offers several advantages over chemical modification studies including (*a*) the ability to produce large quantities of the desired product, (*b*) elimination of significant (although sub-stoichiometric) modification of other lysines, and (*c*) allowing the introduction of modified HBGF-1 into mammalian cells through transfection of cDNA expression vectors designed to produce the desired mutant. Despite these advantages the importance of chemical modification studies such as those of Harper and Lobb (19) should not be underestimated for they are extremely useful in the design of a rational approach to site-directed mutagenesis. The results described here demonstrate that replacement of lysine 132 of HBGF-1 with glutamic acid reduces significantly its apparent affinity for immobilized heparin and its mitogenic capacity. However, the apparent affinity of the mutant for high affinity cell surface receptors appears unaltered. When assayed in the presence of heparin where the difference in wild-type and mutant HBGF-1 mitogenic activity is most apparent, mutant HBGF-1 can stimulate tyrosine kinase activity and induce protooncogene expression. Functional differences between the wild-type and mutant HBGF-1 are also apparent after transfection of cDNA expression vectors into NIH 3T3 fibroblasts.

Materials and Methods

Materials

Heparin-Sepharose, protein A-Sepharose, pKK233 expression vectors, and low molecular weight markers were purchased from Pharmacia Fine Chemicals (Piscataway, NJ). All reagents for PAGE and the Mighty Small Apparatus were from Hoefer Scientific Instruments (San Francisco, CA). Reagents for reversed-phase HPLC, amino acid analysis, and amino acid sequencing were purchased from Applied Biosystems, Inc. (Foster City, CA). Isotopes and the in vitro mutagenesis system were from Amersham Corp. (Arlington Heights, IL). The rabbit polyclonal HBGF-1-specific antibody was provided by R. Friesel (American Red Cross, Rockville, MD) and the rabbit polyclonal anti-phospholipase C-γ antibodies were provided by A. Zilberstein (Rorer Biotechnology, Inc., King of Prussia, PA). Tissue culture media and plasticware were purchased from Gibco Laboratories (Grand Island, NY). High molecular weight molecular markers were from Bio-Rad Laboratories (Richmond, CA). Endoproteinase ASP-N and the random primer DNA labeling kit were from Boehringer Mannheim Biochemicals (Indianapolis, IN). Other chemicals were reagent grade.

Construction of pREC and p132E Prokaryotic Expression Plasmids

The plasmid expressing wild-type HBGF-1 (corresponding to the α-form of endothelial cell growth factor (5), pREC, was kindly provided by R. Forough (American Red Cross). This plasmid was constructed by cloning synthetic oligonucleotide cassettes into the Nco I/Hind III site of pKK233-2. The plasmid expressing mutant HBGF-1 (glutamic acid instead of lysine at amino acid position 132; p132E) was constructed as follows. The Eco RI/Hind III fragment of HBGF-1 cDNA clone 1 (21) was subcloned into M13mp18. Single-stranded template was prepared and used for oligonucleotide-directed in vitro mutagenesis. Double-stranded DNA was transformed into *E. coli* TG-1 cells and the resultant plaques were screened by M13 dideoxy sequencing. The mutated HBGF-1 cDNA was transferred into the expression vector pKK223-3 using the original Eco RI and Hind III sites.

Production and Purification of Recombinant Proteins

Recombinant plasmids pREC or p132E were introduced into the *laci*^{Q}-bearing *Escherichia coli* strain JM103. Cultures of JM103 bearing the recombinant plasmids were grown with shaking at 37°C in Luria broth containing 100 μg/ml ampicillin. A fresh overnight culture was diluted and grown until the A_{550} reached ~0.2, at which point isopropylthio-β-galactoside was added to 1 mM. Cells were collected by centrifugation and frozen at −80°C for subsequent growth factor purification.

The frozen cell pellets from 2-liter cultures were resuspended in 50 ml of 10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 5 mM EDTA, 50 mM glucose. A fresh solution of hen egg lysozyme in the same buffer was added to 10 μg/ml. The cells were mixed at 4°C for 45 min. The viscous lysate was sonicated at maximum intensity using a large probe and four 20-s pulses of a Heat Systems W-380 sonicator. The lysate was clarified by centrifugation at 6,000 g for 15 min at 4°C. The supernatant was diluted to 100 ml with 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 10 mM EDTA and incubated with 20 ml of hydrated heparin-

Sepharose at 4°C with end-over-end mixing for 2 h. The resin was eluted batchwise using a sintered glass funnel and successive washes of the same buffer containing 0, 0.1, 0.5, 0.65, and 1.5 M NaCl.

The wild-type recombinant HBGF-1 eluted with the 1.5 M NaCl wash. The mutant was eluted with the 0.5 M NaCl wash. Although the wild-type protein was essentially pure after heparin-Sepharose chromatography, the mutant HBGF-1 constituted only 10–20% of the 0.5 M NaCl wash. Both preparations were purified to >95% purity using reversed-phase HPLC (4). The reversed-phase purified material was used for all reported studies.

Characterization of Recombinant Proteins

All preparations of purified recombinant human wild-type and mutant HBGF-1 were analyzed by SDS-PAGE, amino acid analysis, amino terminal sequencing, peptide mapping, and amino acid sequencing of the peptide encompassing the mutated residue. Protein concentrations were determined by amino acid analysis. Aliquots of wild-type and mutant HBGF-1 were subjected to electrophoresis using the SDS-PAGE system of Laemmli (26). A 15% acrylamide, 0.4% *N,N'*-methylenebisacrylamide solution was polymerized in a Hoefer mini-gel apparatus and electrophoresis was carried out at a constant 200 V. Protein was visualized by staining the gel with 0.1% Coomassie blue R-250 in 50% methanol, 10% glacial acetic acid, and destaining with 9% glacial acetic acid, 5% methanol. Samples for amino acid analysis were hydrolyzed with argon-purged, constant boiling 6 N HCl at 115°C for 18 h using a Pico-Tag workstation (Waters Associates, Milford, MA). Amino acids were derivatized with phenylisothiocyanate and separated with a PTC analyzer (model 130A; Applied Biosystems, Inc.). A Waters 840 system was used for data collection and reduction. Amino acid sequences were established using a protein sequencer (model 477A; Applied Biosystems, Inc.) using modified Edman chemistry and an on-line model 120A PTH analyzer. Peptide mapping of recombinant protein after digestion with endoproteinase Asp-N at a 1:25 ratio of enzyme to protein in 50 mM Na_2HPO_4, pH 8.0, 37°C for 18 h was performed using a microbore HPLC system (model 130A; Applied Biosystems, Inc.). The appropriate peptides were subjected to amino acid sequence analysis to establish the fidelity of expression of the wild-type and mutant HBGF-1 vectors.

Stability Studies

Metabolically labeled recombinant proteins were prepared by growing bacterial cultures as described above until the A_{550} reached ~0.4, at which point the cells were collected by centrifugation. They were resuspended in 98.5% M9 minimal medium/1.5% Luria broth and [^{3}H]leucine (140 Ci/mmol) was added to 45 μCi/ml. Cells were grown with shaking for 30 min, and then for an additional 4 h in the presence of 1 mM isopropylthio-β-galactoside. Cells were collected and growth factors purified as described above. The purified, labeled growth factors were incubated for 48 h at 37°C in the presence of media (DMEM containing 10% calf serum) that had been conditioned for 48 h by NIH 3T3 cells. The growth factor–containing media was analyzed by SDS-PAGE and autoradiography.

Mitogenic Assays

The mitogenic activities of wild-type and mutant recombinant HBGF-1 were determined by measuring their ability to stimulate DNA synthesis in NIH 3T3 cells and to support the proliferation of human umbilical vein endothelial cells. DNA synthesis was determined by measuring the amount of [^{3}H]thymidine incorporated into cells. Briefly, NIH 3T3 cells were seeded into 48-well plates and grown to near confluence in DME containing 10% calf serum. The cells were serum starved (DME, 0.5% calf serum) for 24 h. Mitogens were added to the wells and incubated for 18 h. The cells were pulsed with 0.5 μCi/ml of [^{3}H]thymidine (25 Ci/mmol) for 4 h. The cells were rinsed with PBS, fixed with 10% TCA, rinsed with PBS, and then solubilized with 0.5 N NaOH. Incorporation of [^{3}H]thymidine into acid-insoluble material was determined by scintillation counting. All assays were performed in triplicate.

Human umbilical vein endothelial cells were provided by T. Maciag (American Red Cross, Rockville, MD). They were maintained on fibronectin-coated plates (2 μg/cm^2) in medium 199 supplemented with 10% (vol/vol) heat-inactivated FBS, 1× antibiotic–antimycotic, 10 U/ml heparin, and 10 ng/ml human recombinant HBGF-1. For growth assays, cells were seeded in 24-well plates at 2,000 cells/well in medium 199 supplemented as above with the exception of HBGF-1. The indicated amounts of wild-type or mutant HBGF-1 and heparin were added to the wells. The media was changed ever other day. After 7 d in culture, cells were trypsinized and counted using a hemocytometer.

Competition for Binding and Cross-Linking to Cell Surface Receptors

Bovine brain–derived HBGF-1 (4) was labeled with ^{125}I using immobilized lactoperoxidase and biologically active, labeled protein was isolated using heparin-Sepharose as described (16). Confluent NIH 3T3 cells in 24-well plates were serum starved for 24 h before binding experiments in DME containing 0.5% calf serum. The cells were washed and incubated with DME containing 5 U/ml heparin, 0.5% BSA, and 25 mM Hepes, pH 7.2 (binding buffer) at room temperature for 20 min. The cells then were incubated with ^{125}I-HBGF-1 and unlabeled wild-type or mutant HBGF-1 in the presence of 5 U/ml heparin as indicated in the figure legend. The cells were incubated on ice for 90 min. The plates were aspirated and washed four times with binding buffer. The cells were then incubated for 20 min at 4°C with 1 ml of 0.3 mM disuccinimidyl suberate in PBS. The cross-linker was then aspirated off and the reaction quenched by adding 2.0 M Tris-HCl, pH 8.0. The cells were washed with PBS, scraped from the plates and pelleted for 10 s at 15,000 *g*. The pellets were extracted with 100 μl of 50 mM Tris, 1 mM EDTA, 200 mM NaCl, 1.0% Triton X-100, 0.1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride, pH 7.5 for 20 min at 4°C. The extracts were centrifuged for 10 min at 15,000 *g*. The supernatants were removed and mixed with an equal volume of Laemmli sample buffer for SDS-PAGE analysis.

Stimulation of Protein Tyrosine Kinase Activity

NIH 3T3 cells were grown to confluence in 100 mm dishes and serum starved as described above. The cells were then exposed to diluent 1.0, or 10 ng/ml of wild-type or mutant HBGF-1 for 10 min at 37°C. The cells were washed once with cold PBS then lysed in buffer containing 10 mM Tris, 50 mM NaCl, 5 mM EDTA, 50 mM NaF, 30 mM sodium pyrophosphate, 100 μM sodium orthovanadate, 1.0% Triton X-100, 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride, pH 7.4. The cells were scraped from the plates, vortexed, and incubated on ice for 10 min. Lysates were clarified by centrifugation at 10,000 *g* for 10 min at 4°C and the supernatants were mixed with an equal volume of 2× Laemmli sample buffer. Samples (normalized to cell number) were subjected to PAGE in the presence of SDS. The proteins were transferred to nitrocellulose and immunoblotted with anti-phosphotyrosine antibodies as described (15). The blots were incubated with ^{125}I-protein A and phosphotyrosine-containing proteins were visualized by autoradiography. In some experiments the initial cell lysates were incubated with a prebound anti-phospholipase C-γ antibody/protein A-Sepharose complex (31) for 90 min at 4°C. The beads were washed with 20 mM Hepes, 0.1% Triton X-100, 150 mM NaCl, 10% glycerol, pH 7.5. Immunoprecipitated proteins were eluted from the beads with 2× Laemmli sample buffer and subjected to PAGE and Western blotting with anti-phosphotyrosine antibodies as described above.

RNA Gel Blot Analysis

NIH 3T3 cells were incubated for 48 h in DME/0.5% FCS and then either left unstimulated or stimulated with wild-type or mutant HBGF-1 for the indicated times. Cells were harvested, total RNA was prepared (17), and 10 μg of each sample was separated by electrophoresis on 1.2% agarose gels containing formaldehyde. The gels were stained with ethidium bromide photographed to verify that each lane contained an equal amount of undegraded ribosomal RNA. RNA was electroblotted onto Zetabind nylon filters and cross-linked by UV irradiation. The restriction fragments used and source of the DNA probes were as follows: (*a*) c-*fos*, 2.8-kb Nco I/Xho I fragment of pc-*fos*-1; American Type Culture Collection, Rockville, MD; (*b*) c-*jun*, 1.5-kb Hind III/Bam HI fragment of ph-cJ-1; gift of P. Angel, University of California, La Jolla, CA; (*c*) c-*myc*, 1.4-kb Sst I fragment of pHSR-1; ATCC; (*d*) glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase, 0.8-kb Pst I/Xba I fragment of pHcGAP; ATCC. The probes were labeled with [^{32}P]dCTP (3,000 Ci/mmol) using a random primer labeling kit. Hybridization and filter washes were as described (17). Blots were exposed to Kodak XAR5 film at −70°C.

Transfection of NIH 3T3 Cells with HBGF-1 Eukaryotic Expression Plasmids

NIH 3T3 cells in 100 mm dishes were transfected with plasmid DNA by the calcium phosphate precipitation method (44). Cells were incubated with either 1 μg of pSV2 neo (41) or co-transfected with a mixture (1:10 μg) of pSV2 neo and either HBGF-1 wild-type expression vector (p267) or HBGF-1 mutant expression vector (p268). The plasmid p267 is described in Jaye et

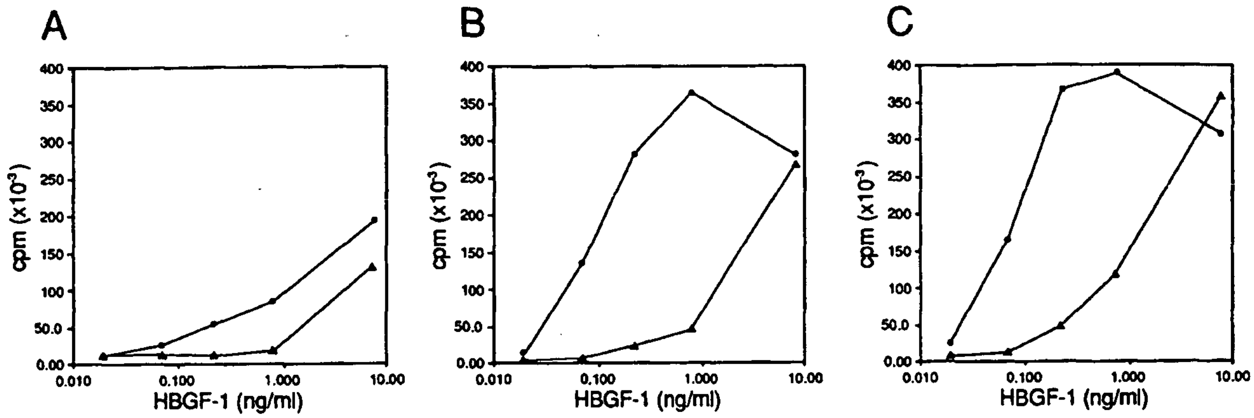

Figure 1. Stimulation of DNA synthesis in NIH 3T3 cells by wild-type and mutant HBGF-1. Cells were grown to near confluence and serum starved for 24 h as described in Materials and Methods. Cells were treated with the indicated concentrations of wild-type (●) or mutant (▲) HBGF-1, incubated for 18 h, and then pulsed with 0.5 μCi of [^{3}H]thymidine/ml for 4 h. The cells were harvested and incorporation of radioactivity was determined. Both wild-type and mutant HBGF-1 were assayed in the presence of 0 (*A*), 5 (*B*), or 50 U/ml heparin (*C*).

al. (23); p268 was constructed by replacing the 297nt Pvu II/Bgl II fragment of p267 (encoding amino acids 38–155) with the corresponding region from the prokaryotic expression plasmid pE132 using standard subcloning methods. Cells were split to 10 dishes and transfected colonies were selected by incubating the cells in DME, 10% calf serum containing 500 μg/ml Geneticin. The media was changed every 3–4 d. After 4 wk, transfected colonies were analyzed for HBGF-1 expression by Western blot analysis using rabbit polyclonal HBGF-1-specific antibodies and ^{125}I-protein A as described above.

Results

Heparin-binding Properties of HBGF-1 Mutant p132E

A drastic reduction in the apparent affinity of HBGF-1 containing glutamic acid in place of lysine at position 132 was observed during the purification of the recombinant proteins from the *Escherichia coli* lysates. Recombinant wild-type HBGF-1 from *E. coli* lysates can be purified to near homogeneity with a single heparin-Sepharose step. The protein binds the immobilized heparin during extensive washing with 0.5 and 0.65 M NaCl–containing buffers and is eluted with a single step of 1.5 M NaCl–containing buffer. In contrast, heparin-Sepharose affinity-based chromatography could not be used as a single purification step for the mutant HBGF-1. The mutant protein binds immobilized heparin in the presence of 0.1 M NaCl but was eluted during the 0.5 M NaCl wash. Both wild-type and mutant HBGF-1 (1.5 and 0.5 M NaCl eluates, respectively) could be purified to apparent homogeneity using reversed-phase HPLC. Detailed analysis of the apparent affinities of the two purified proteins for immobilized heparin-Sepharose using relatively shallow, linear NaCl gradients indicated that the mutant HBGF-1 eluted with 0.45 M NaCl whereas wild-type required 1.1 M NaCl to be eluted (data not shown). For all of the assays described below we used reversed-phase HPLC purified wild-type or mutant HBGF-1. Protein concentrations were determined by amino acid analysis of preparations that had been shown to be the desired HBGF-1 form by peptide mapping and amino acid sequence analysis (data not shown).

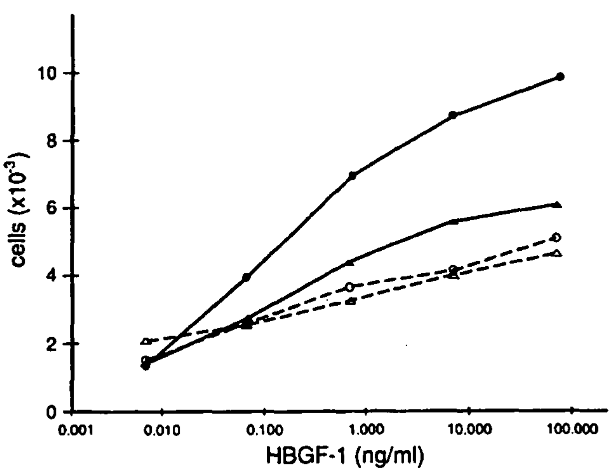

Figure 2. Ability of wild-type and mutant HBGF-1 to stimulate growth of human umbilical vein endothelial cells. Cells were seeded and cultured as described in Materials and Methods. Cell number after 7 d in culture in the presence of the indicated concentrations of wild-type (○/●) or mutant (△/▲) HBGF-1 in the absence (○/△) or presence (●/▲) of 50 U/ml heparin is shown.

Mitogenic Properties of HBGF-1 Mutant p132E

The ability of the HBGF-1 mutant to stimulate mitogenesis was compared to that of the wild-type protein using two different assays. In the first, the ability of the two proteins to stimulate DNA synthesis in NIH 3T3 cells as measured by [^{3}H]thymidine incorporation was examined. The assays were conducted over a broad range of HBGF-1 and heparin concentrations. Two important points can be made from the data in Fig. 1. One, the wild-type HBGF-1 has a dramatic requirement for the presence of heparin for optimal mitogenic activity and, two, the mutant HBGF-1 is significantly less potent than wild-type protein in the presence of added heparin. As can be seen in Fig. 1, the maximal difference in mitogenic potency was observed in the presence of 5 U/ml heparin (~30-fold). Little difference (approximately three-

Table I. Cell Number ($\times 10^{-5}$)

	Growth factor concentration (ng/ml)					
	0	0.1	0.5	1	5	10
GLU_{132} HBGF-1	1.6	1.6	1.3	1.2	1.7	1.4
Wild-type HBGF-1	1.7	2.0	1.9	2.9	12.6	16.6

fold) between the wild-type and mutant protein is seen in the absence of added heparin because of the relative lack of mitogenic activity of wild-type human recombinant HBGF-1 in the absence of heparin. The possibility that the reduced mitogenic activity of the mutant HBGF-1 is related directly to its reduced apparent affinity for immobilized heparin is supported by the observation that the difference in the mitogenic potency between the wild-type and mutant protein is reduced to ~18-fold in the presence of 50 U/ml heparin.

In the second mitogenesis assay the abilities of the wild-type and mutant proteins to support the proliferation of human umbilical vein endothelial cells were compared. The results shown in Fig. 2 are consistent with those described above in that they demonstrate a dramatic heparin requirement of the wild-type HBGF-1 for biological activity and that the mutant HBGF-1 is not able to support cell proliferation to the same extent as the wild-type protein. These experiments were conducted in the presence of 50 U/ml heparin and the endothelial cells were seeded in the presence of 10 ng/ml wild-type HBGF-1. When growth assays were conducted in the presence of 5 U/ml heparin without wild-type protein during the seeding, mitogenic deficiencies of the mutant protein were more pronounced (Table I). The results shown in Fig. 3 demonstrate that the reduced mitogenic activity of the mutant HBGF-1 does not appear to be the result of any increased susceptibility of the protein to proteolytic digestion by components in serum or the conditioned media of NIH 3T3 cells.

Receptor-binding Activity of HBGF-1 Mutant p132E

The results presented above are consistent with the observations of Harper and Lobb (19) using bovine brain–derived HBGF-1 selectively methylated at lysine 132, although the magnitude of the reduction in mitogenic potency (~30-fold for 3T3 cell assay) as compared with the ~4-fold decrease reported by Harper and Lobb (19) is significantly greater. They also reported reduced receptor-binding activity for the modified protein. We examined the abilities of the wild-type and mutant recombinant HBGF-1 to compete with ^{125}I-labeled bovine HBGF-1 for binding to cell surface receptors on NIH 3T3 cells at a concentration of added heparin (5 U/ml) where the difference in mitogenic potencies of the two proteins was greatest.

The receptor-binding activity of the mutant HBGF-1 was established by competition for cross-linking of ^{125}I-HBGF-1 to 150,000- and 130,000-M_r proteins present on the surface of NIH 3T3 cells (16). The results shown in Fig. 4 demonstrate that the mutant HBGF-1 is similar to wild-type protein in its ability to compete for receptor–ligand cross-linking.

The functional consequences of HBGF-1 binding to its cell surface receptor include stimulation of protein tyrosine kinase activity (8, 15, 20) including phosphorylation of phospholipase C-γ (6). Fig. 5 *A* demonstrates that both wild-type and mutant HBGF-1 are able to increase the phosphotyrosine content of 150,000-, 90,000-, and 70,000-M_r proteins and, to a lesser extent, proteins with lower relative molecular masses as judged by Western blot analysis with phosphotyrosine-specific antibodies. The dose response and extent of activation is similar for the two forms of the growth factor. Stimulation of the phosphotyrosine content of phospholipase C-γ was examined by anti-phosphotyrosine Western blot analysis of 3T3 cell lysates after immunoprecipitation using antibodies that recognize phospholipase C-γ. Fig. 5 *B* demonstrates tha* mutant HBGF-1 shares with wild-type HBGF-1 the ability to stimulate tyrosine phosphorylation of phospholipase C-γ. These data regarding stimulation of tyrosine kinase activity by wild-type and mutant HBGF-1 are in good agreement with the receptor-binding data described above but do not provide insight into the functional basis for the relatively poor mitogenic capacity of this HBGF-1 mutant.

Protooncogene Induction by Wild-Type and Mutant HBGF-1

The results described above indicate that the functional properties of the mutant HBGF-1 associated with events that occur at the cell surface (i.e., receptor-binding and tyrosine kinase activation) are normal with respect to those of wild-type HBGF-1. In addition to tyrosine kinase activation, another early response to HBGF-1 receptor-binding is the elevation of protooncogene mRNA levels (17). To determine the effect of wild-type and mutant HBGF-1 on protooncogene expression, NIH 3T3 cells were serum starved and then either left unstimulated or stimulated with 10 ng/ml wild-type or mutant HBGF-1. Heparin (5 U/ml) was also added to the cells receiving growth factor. Cells were collected at various times after stimulation, RNA was prepared, and levels of c-*fos*, c-*jun*, c-*myc*, and glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase mRNA (as a control for the amount of RNA loaded in each lane) were assayed by RNA gel blot analysis. Wild-type and mutant HBGF-1 increased protooncogene mRNA levels to a similar degree; maximal levels were observed at 30 min (c-*fos*, c-*jun*) or 2 h (c-*myc*) after stimulation (Fig.

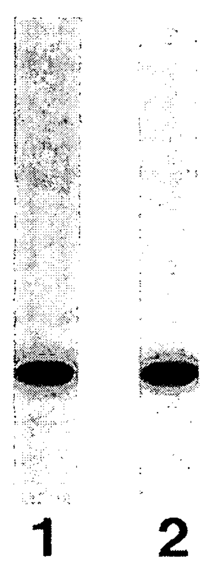

Figure 3. Analysis of the relative stability of wild-type and mutant HBGF-1 in NIH 3T3 cell–conditioned media. The wild-type and mutant proteins were labeled and purified as described in Materials and Methods. The proteins were incubated in the presence of NIH 3T3 cell–conditioned media for 48 h at 37°C and then subjected to SDS-PAGE. The gels were dried and labeled proteins visualized by autoradiography. Lane 1 contains wild-type HBGF-1 and lane 2 mutant HBGF-1. The apparent molecular weights of both proteins are identical to that of HBGF-1 before incubation.

Figure 4. Ability of wild-type and mutant HBGF-1 to compete with ^{125}I-labeled bovine HBGF-1 for cross-linking to 150,000- and 130,000-mol wt cell surface receptors. NIH 3T3 cells were incubated with 1 ng/ml bovine ^{125}I-HBGF-1 and either 0.5, 1.0, 5.0, 10.0, or 50.0 ng/ml of wild-type (lanes 1–5) or mutant (lanes 6–10) human recombinant HBGF-1 in the presence of 5 U/ml heparin. After incubation, the cells were treated with cross-linking reagents as described in Materials and Methods. The apparent molecular weights of cross-linked species were determined after SDS-PAGE and autoradiography. The positions of two cross-linked 150,000- and 130,000-mol wt species, which correspond to the known apparent molecular weights of HBGF receptors, are indicated with arrows.

6). The addition of heparin alone did not induce protooncogene expression. Since the mitogenic differences between the wild-type and mutant HBGF-1 are more pronounced at lower growth factor concentrations, we also stimulated cells with 0.5, 1.0, 5.0, and 10 ng/ml wild-type and mutant growth factor (again in the presence of heparin). At all four concentrations used, the wild-type and mutant HBGF-1 were similar in their ability to induce c-*fos* mRNA expression (Fig. 7).

Overexpression of Wild-Type and Mutant HBGF-1 in Transfected NIH 3T3 Cells

It was demonstrated previously that overexpression of wild-type HBGF-1 in transfected Swiss 3T3 cells resulted in cells with an elongated, transformed morphological phenotype that grew to higher saturation densities (23). This transformed phenotype occurred even though the HBGF-1 polypeptide was not detectable in the conditioned media of these cells. We have shown that the mutant HBGF-1 is not a potent mitogen although it can bind receptor and initiate early events associated with mitogenic signal transduction. To investigate whether the intracellular function of the mutant HBGF-1 was altered, we examined the ability of this protein to induce a transformed phenotype in NIH 3T3 cells. Cells were either transfected with a plasmid conferring neomycin resistance or co-transfected with the neomycin resistance plasmid and wild-type or mutant HBGF-1 expression vectors.

Fig. 8 shows the results of Western blot analysis of transfected cell lysates using HBGF-1–specific antibodies. The Western blot analysis was normalized to cell number and provides the basis for our designation of relatively high or low levels of HBGF-1 expression. The results shown in Fig. 9 demonstrate that cells expressing a high level of wild-type HBGF-1 (Fig. 9 *B*) and to some extent a low level of wild-

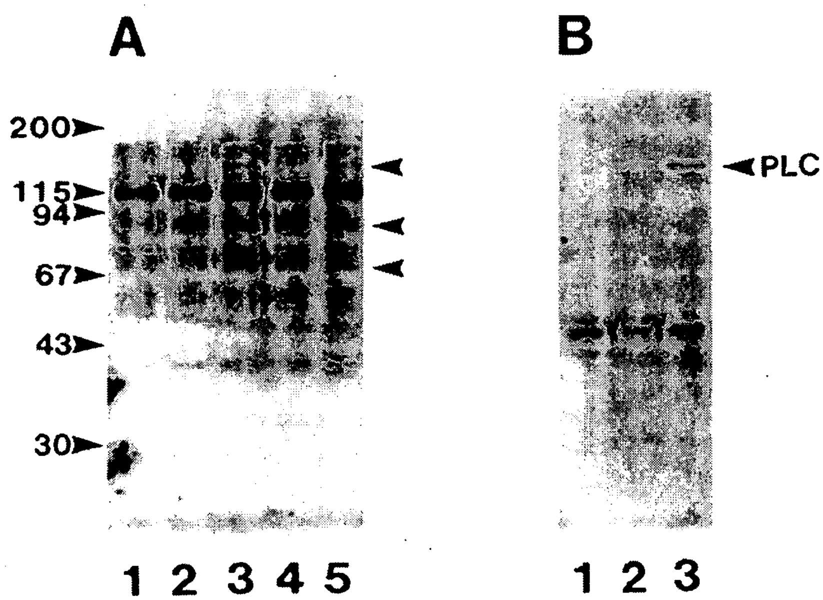

Figure 5. Stimulation of protein tyrosine kinase activity by wild-type and mutant HBGF-1. (*A*) Serum starved NIH 3T3 cells were either (lane *1*) unstimulated or treated with 5 U/ml heparin and (lane *2*) 1 ng/ml wild-type; (lane *3*) 10 ng/ml wild-type; (lane *4*) 1 ng/ml mutant; or (lane *5*) 10 ng/ml mutant HBGF-1. The cells were processed as described in Materials and Methods and phosphotyrosine-containing proteins were visualized using antiphosphotyrosine antibodies and ^{125}I-protein A. The arrows indicate the positions of 150,000–, 90,000–, and 70,000–mol wt proteins whose phosphotyrosine content are increased by the addition of wild-type or mutant HBGF-1. (*B*) Cells were incubated as in *A* with the exception that cell lysates were immunoprecipitated with anti-phospholipase C-γ antibodies before Western blot analysis with anti-phosphotyrosine antibodies. Cells were either (lane *1*) unstimulated or treated with (lane 2) 10 ng/ml wild-type, or (lane *3*) 10 ng/ml mutant HBGF-1. The arrow shows the position of a 150,000–mol wt protein whose phosphotyrosine content is increased by treatment with wild-type or mutant HBGF-1.

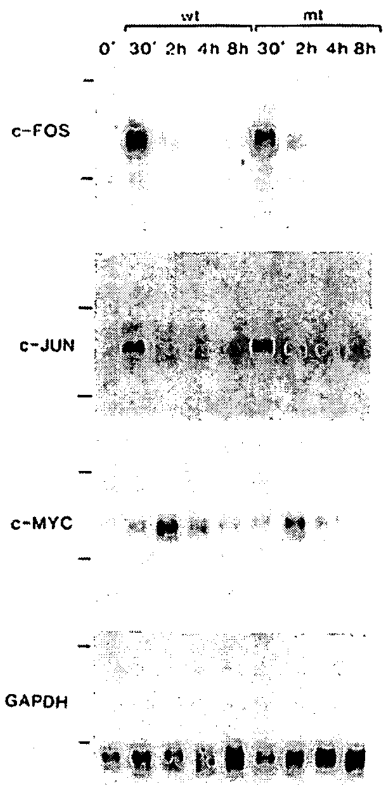

Figure 6. Effect of wild-type and mutant HBGF-1 on protooncogene mRNA levels. Serum starved NIH 3T3 cells were either left unstimulated or treated with heparin (5 U/ml) and 10 ng/ml wild-type (*wt*) or mutant (*mt*) HBGF-1 for the indicated time periods. RNA was prepared and used for RNA gel blot hybridization using the radiolabeled DNA probes indicated on the left side (*GAPDH*, glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase). The upper and lower tick marks on the left side of each panel represent the positions of 28 and 18S rRNA, respectively.

type HBGF-1 (Fig. 9 *D*) have acquired a more polar, elongated phenotype characteristic of transformed 3T3 cells. This phenotype is not seen in cells expressing neomycin resistance alone (Fig. 9 *A*) or in cells expressing relatively high levels of mutant HBGF-1 (Fig. 9 *C*). It should be noted that we have not been able to detect HBGF-1 immunoreactivity in the media conditioned by these cells and that the cells expressing relatively high levels of wild-type HBGF-1 show enhanced growth in soft agar relative to untransfected cells or cells expressing high levels of the mutant HBGF-1 (data not shown). These results are consistent with the results of the mitogenic assays described above which demonstrate that the growth-promoting activity of the mutant HBGF-1 is relatively low when compared to the wild-type protein.

Discussion

The experiments described in this report were initiated as a result of the chemical modification studies of HBGF-1 reported by Harper and Lobb (19). They demonstrated that reductive methylation of HBGF-1 resulted in selective, stoichiometric modification of lysine residue 132 (using the 1–154 numbering system for full-length HBGF-1). It was suggested that modification of this residue, which is conserved in all HBGF-1 and HBGF-2 sequences reported to date, was responsible for the reduced apparent affinity for immobilized heparin, the reduced mitogenic capacity, and the reduced receptor-binding activity of the modified protein. The results presented here using site-directed mutagenesis to address the role of lysine 132 on the functional properties of HBGF-1 are in general agreement with the conclusions of Harper and Lobb (19). Specifically, substitution of lysine 132 for glutamic acid reduces the apparent affinity of the recombinant protein for immobilized heparin (elutes at 0.45 M NaCl compared with 1.1 M NaCl for wild-type) and significantly reduces the mitogenic potency of the growth factor. The reduced mitogenic potency may be a direct consequence of the reduced apparent affinity of the mutant HBGF-1 for heparin since it has been demonstrated that the class 1 heparin-binding growth factors in general (29) and human HBGF-1 in particular (22, 43) are dependent on the presence of heparin for optimal biological activity.

Our results do not support the notion that the reduced mitogenic capacity of HBGF-1 containing glutamic acid in place of lysine at position 132 is due to reduced binding to cell surface receptors. The receptor-binding properties of the mutant HBGF-1 are not distinguishable from those of the wild-type protein as judged by cross-linking experiments (see Fig. 4). In addition, the mutant HBGF-1 is able to induce the same pattern of tyrosine kinase phosphorylation as is the wild-type protein (see Fig. 5) and can induce protooncogene expression (see Fig. 6). The majority of the studies presented here utilize a heparin concentration of 5 U/ml; the concentration where maximal difference between the mitogenic activity of wild-type and mutant HBGF-1 was observed in the 3T3 cell thymidine incorporation assay. It should be noted that in the absence of heparin, the mutant HBGF-1 competes poorly with labeled wild-type HBGF-1 in cross-

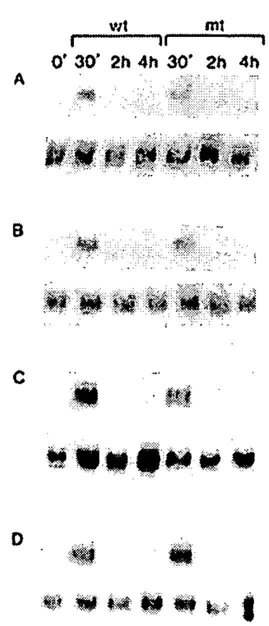

Figure 7. Effect of different concentrations of wild-type and mutant HBGF-1 on c-*fos* mRNA levels. Serum starved NIH 3T3 cells were either left unstimulated or treated with heparin (5 U/ml) and (*A*) 0.5 ng/ml, (*B*) 1.0 ng/ml, (*C*) 5.0 ng/ml, (*D*) 10 ng/ml wild-type (*wt*) or mutant (*mt*) HBGF-1 for the indicated time periods. RNA was prepared and used for RNA gel blot hybridization using the c-*fos* DNA probe (*upper panels*) or glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase DNA probe (*lower panels*).

Figure 8. Western blot analysis of HBGF-1 in NIH 3T3 cells transfected with wild-type or mutant HBGF-1 expression plasmids. NIH 3T3 cells were transfected as described in Materials and Methods. The figure shows the relative levels of HBGF-1 immunoreactivity present in lysates of cells transfected with wild-type HBGF-1 (lane *1*, clone producing relatively high level of HBGF-1; lane *3*, clone producing relatively low level of HBGF-1) normal NIH 3T3 cells (lane 2), cells transfected with pSV2neo alone (lane *4*), and cells transfected with mutant HBGF-1 (lane *5*). For each cell type, 10^6 cells were lysed with 1 ml of 2× Laemmli sample buffer and a 60-μl aliquot was used in the Western blot.

linking assays (data not shown). In addition, whereas the apparent affinity of the mutant HBGF-1 for immobilized heparin is reduced, it does bind at ionic strengths (i.e., ~0.5 M NaCl) that exceed those known to be physiologic. Thus, the data presented here indicate that the mutant can utilize the presence of heparin to restore some (i.e., receptor-binding, tyrosine kinase activation, and protooncogene induction) but not all (i.e., stimulation of [^{3}H]thymidine incorporation into DNA and endothelial cell proliferation) of the activities of the wild-type protein. Similarly, it is of interest that the wild-type protein competes with labeled HBGF-1 for receptor-binding and induces protooncogene expression at similar concentrations in the presence or absence of added heparin yet it requires added heparin in order to promote DNA synthesis and cell proliferation (Figs. 1, 2, 4, and 6; and data not shown). Thus, the relatively poor mitogenic activity of the mutant protein may be related to its reduced apparent affinity for heparin. The data presented here demonstrate that "high" affinity receptor-binding, activation of tyrosine kinase activity, tyrosine phosphorylation of specific substrates, and induction of protooncogene expression may be necessary but are not, by themselves, sufficient to sustain a mitogenic response to the presence of HBGF-1. These results are consistent with the observations of Escobedo and Williams (12) who showed by site-directed mutagenesis of the PDGF receptor and cDNA transfection that mutants could be constructed that were responsive to PDGF with respect to receptor tyrosine kinase activation and increased phosphatidylinositol turnover but did not elicit a mitogenic re-

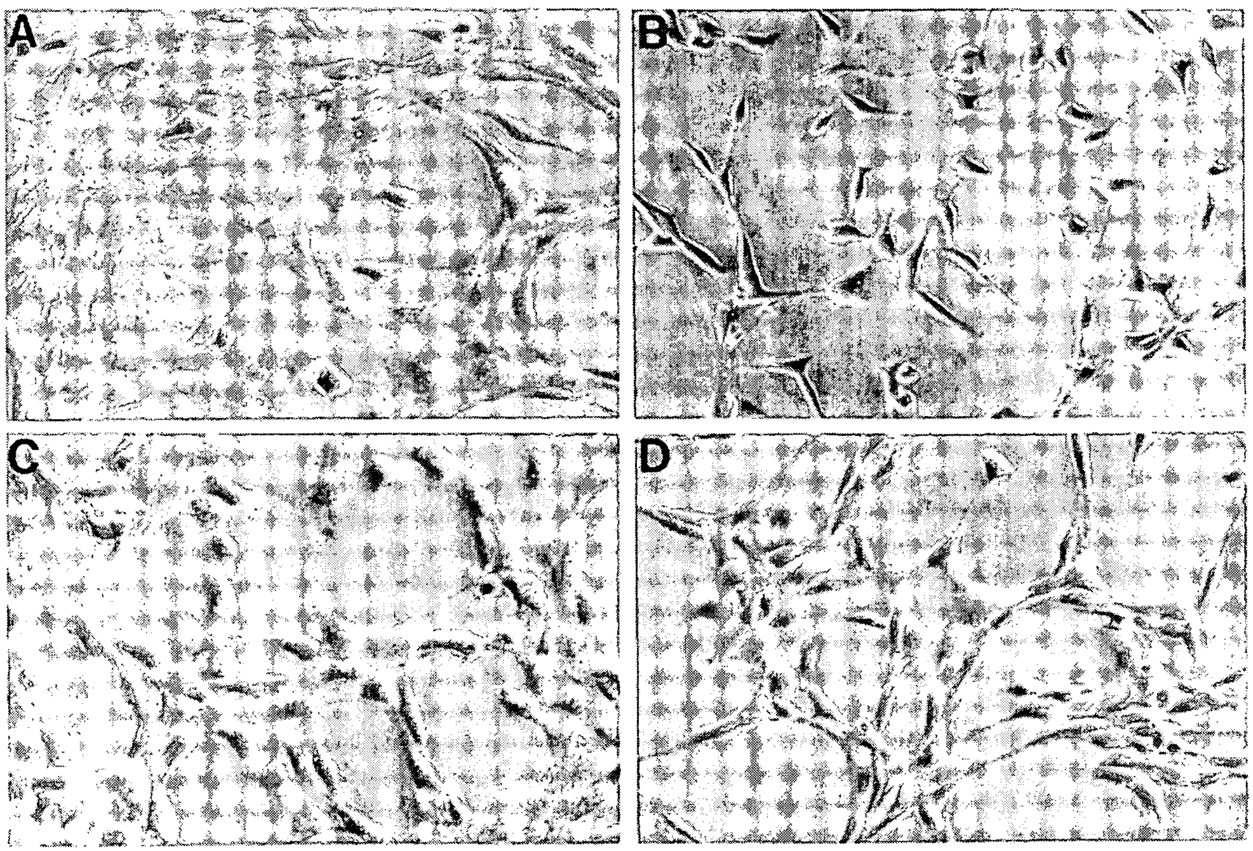

Figure 9. Morphology of NIH 3T3 cells transfected with wild-type or mutant HBGF-1 expression plasmids. The figure shows micrographs of the same NIH 3T3 cells analyzed by Western blot analysis in Fig. 8. *A* shows cells transfected with pSV2neo only and B–D show cells co-transfected with pSV2neo and expression vectors for wild-type (*B* and *D*) and mutant (*C*) HBGF-1. The cells shown in *B* correspond to those expressing relatively high levels of HBGF-1 (Fig. 8, lane *1*), whereas those shown in *D* correspond to those expressing relatively little HBGF-1 (Fig. 8, lane *3*).

sponse to PDGF. Similarly, Severinsson et al. (40) used similar methods to generate a system where the mutant receptor could mediate an increase in c-*fos* expression in response to PDGF but not actin reorganization or mitogenesis.

The mitogenic deficiencies of the mutant HBGF-1 may be due to reduced biological stability in tissue culture medium, reduced binding to cell surface proteoglycans, an altered intracellular stability, and/or an altered affinity for an intracellular receptor or binding protein. It has been established that the presence of heparin protects HBGF-1 from thermal and proteolytic inactivation (28, 37). In addition, it has been shown that ^{125}I-labeled HBGF-1 is relatively insensitive to lysosomal degradation after receptor-mediated endocytosis (14). There is no obvious difference in the susceptibility of wild-type and mutant HBGF-1 to proteolytic cleavage by the conditioned media of NIH 3T3 cells cultured in the presence of 10% calf serum. However, the relative resistance of wild-type and mutant HBGF-1 to proteolytic modification in the presence of target cells or after receptor-mediated endocytosis has not been established. It is also possible that the mutant protein is more susceptible than the wild type to nonproteolytic inactivation. Further studies should reveal whether the altered activities of the mutant HBGF-1 are a consequence of its reduced apparent affinity for heparin.

In summary, the data presented here demonstrate that the various functions of HBGF-1 can be dissociated at the structural level. The observation that site-directed mutagenesis can be used to produce recombinant proteins with "normal" receptor-binding activity and reduced mitogenic activity indicates that similar methods could be used to produce potent antagonists of HBGF-1. More importantly, these results indicate that it may be possible through structure–function analysis and site-directed mutagenesis to generate mutants that retain certain (i.e., chemotactic, mitogenic, or heparin-binding) but not other biological functions characteristic of the wild-type protein. Finally, whereas the data presented on the receptor-binding and tyrosine kinase activation properties of the pl32E mutant demonstrate that a lysine residue at this position is not critical for these functions, it is still possible that methylation of a lysine at this position could lead to reduced receptor-binding activity of HBGF-1 (19).

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Transforming Growth Factor α: Mutation of Aspartic Acid 47 and Leucine 48 Results in Different Biological Activities

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To study the relationship between the primary structure of transforming growth factor α (TGF-α) and some of its functional properties (competition with epidermal growth factor (EGF) for binding to the EGF receptor and induction of anchorage-independent growth), we introduced single amino acid mutations into the sequence for the fully processed, 50-amino-acid human TGF-α. The wild-type and mutant proteins were expressed in a vector by using a yeast α mating pheromone promoter. Mutations of two amino acids that are conserved in the family of the EGF-like peptides and are located in the carboxy-terminal part of TGF-α resulted in different biological effects. When aspartic acid 47 was mutated to alanine or asparagine, biological activity was retained; in contrast, substitutions of this residue with serine or glutamic acid generated mutants with reduced binding and colony-forming capacities. When leucine 48 was mutated to alanine, a complete loss of binding and colony-forming abilities resulted; mutation of leucine 48 to isoleucine or methionine resulted in very low activities. Our data suggest that these two adjacent conserved amino acids in positions 47 and 48 play different roles in defining the structure and/or biological activity of TGF-α and that the carboxy terminus of TGF-α is involved in interactions with cellular TGF-α receptors. The side chain of leucine 48 appears to be crucial either indirectly in determining the biologically active conformation of TGF-α or directly in the molecular recognition of TGF-α by its receptor.

Transforming growth factor α (TGF-α) is a polypeptide of 50 amino acids. First isolated from a retrovirus-transformed mouse cell line (9), it has subsequently been found in human tumor cells (10, 29), in the early rat embryo (18), and recently in cell cultures from the pituitary gland (23). TGF-α appears to be closely related to epidermal growth factor (EGF) structurally and functionally (19, 20). The two peptides apparently bind to the same receptor, and both induce anchorage-independent growth of certain nontransformed cells, such as NRK cells, in the presence of TGF-β (1).

Comparison of amino acid sequences reveals about 35% homology among the EGF-like peptides (rat [27], mouse [25], and human [13] EGFs and rat [19] and human [12] TGF-αs). Some viral peptides (Shope fibroma growth factor [6], vaccinia growth factor [2], and myxoma growth factor [30]) also share homologies with the EGF-like peptides.

If TGF-α is involved in transformation, a TGF-α antagonist could be an important therapeutic tool in the treatment of certain types of malignancies. An understanding of the conformational and dynamic properties of the TGF-α molecule is basic to the design of an antagonist. A hypothetical antagonist would bind to the same receptor as TGF-α, but would not induce the series of proliferative and transforming events induced by TGF-α. To obtain such a molecule it is necessary to dissociate interactions responsible for binding from those involved in signal transduction. We decided to approach the problem by way of site-directed mutagenesis of a human sequence of TGF-α. In this report we describe our first series of mutations, which were carried out at residues Asp-47 and Leu-48, in the carboxy-terminal part of TGF-α; these two amino acids are highly conserved in the EGF-like family of peptides. We show that these two adjacent residues play different roles in the structure and/or function of TGF-α.

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MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cells. Normal rat kidney (NRK) cells were grown in Dulbecco modified Eagle medium containing 10% (vol/vol) calf serum.

TGF-α gene. The sequence of the 50-amino-acid human TGF-α was originally derived from a human TGF-α precursor cDNA (12). The coding sequence is preceded by an ATG methionine codon and followed by a TAA stop codon and is flanked by *Eco*RI restriction sites. This *Eco*RI fragment combines the 59-base-pair *Eco*RI-*Nco*I fragment from plasmid pTE5 (12) with the 111-base-pair *Nco*I-*Eco*RI fragment from plasmid pyTE2 (11). The resulting *Eco*RI fragment was inserted in M13mp18 for site-directed mutagenesis.

Synthesis and purification of oligonucleotides and oligonucleotide-directed mutagenesis. The synthesis and purification of 20- to 27-nucleotide oligonucleotides were carried out as described previously (31). The one or two nucleotides responsible for the mutation were located in the middle of the oligonucleotide. Mutagenesis was performed by published procedures (21, 33). The sequences of the mutant clones were verified by the method of Sanger et al. (25).

Yeast shuttle vector. The vector YEp70αT contains a yeast α-factor pheromone promoter and prepro sequence for the expression of TGF-α (15). The mutant TGF-α coding sequence was inserted in the *Eco*RI site of plasmid YEp70αT and expressed in the form of a fusion protein consisting of 92 amino acids from the prepro sequence of the yeast α factor attached to the amino terminus of TGF-α (28). The yeast cleaves the precursor and secretes TGF-α with 8 amino acids fused to it (4 are encoded by the prepro sequence of α-factor, and the other 4 are encoded by the DNA sequence added to insert of the TGF-α gene). The last of these residues is a methionine, which allows the cleavage of the secreted fusion

protein by cyanogen bromide (CNBr) and the release of a mature TGF-α (50 amino acids) (see Results).

Yeast strain and transformation. The yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* 20B-12 (*MATα trp1 pep4-3*) (17) was obtained from the Yeast Genetics Stock Center, Berkeley, Calif. *S. cerevisiae* 20B-12 was grown in YEPD medium (1% yeast extract [Difco Laboratories], 2% Bacto-Peptone [Difco], 2% glucose). When the culture reached an optical density at 660 nm of 1, spheroplasts were prepared (14) for transformation. For each transformation we used 10 to 15 μg of purified plasmid DNA.

Partial purification of TGF-α mutants. At 3 days after transformation, five individual colonies of transformants were grown to saturation in YEPD medium. The amount of protein in the yeast medium was measured by the method of Bradford (3), and the amount of mutant TGF-α secreted in the yeast medium was determined by radioimmunoassay. The clones which secrete the highest amount of mutant TGF-α were used to grow a 1-liter culture in YNB-CAA medium (0.67% yeast nitrogen base, 20 g of glucose per liter, 10 g of Casamino Acids [Difco] per liter). After the culture reached saturation (optical density at 660 nm of 10 to 12) (48 h in an air shaker at 30°C), the yeast conditioned medium was dialyzed extensively against 1 M acetic acid in 3,000-molecular-weight cutoff dialysis tubing. Usually 250 ml of dialyzed culture was lyophilized, suspended in 10 ml of 70% formic acid, and treated with CNBr (molar excess of 500) for 20 h at room temperature. The CNBr was subsequently evaporated, and the samples were lyophilized. CNBr-treated samples were suspended in 1 ml of 1 M acetic acid, loaded on a Bio-gel P30 column (30 by 1.5 cm [Bio-Rad Laboratories]), and eluted with 1 M acetic acid. Fractions of 1 ml were collected. Aliquots were lyophilized, suspended in binding buffer (minimum essential medium containing 1 mg of bovine serum albumin per ml and 25 mM HEPES [*N*-2-hydroxyethylpiperazine-*N*'-2-ethanesulfonic acid; pH 7.4]), neutralized if necessary to pH 7.4, and tested in EGF-binding competition and soft-agar assays, as well in radioimmunoassay.

Radioimmunoassays. The amounts of TGF-α secreted in the yeast medium were determined by radioimmunoassay with the immunoglobulin G fraction of a polyclonal antibody, 34D, raised against recombinant human TGF-α (4), in 0.1 M Tris (pH 7.5)–0.15 M NaCl–2.5 mg of bovine serum albumin per ml. The amounts of partially purified TGF-α present in the P30 column fractions were measured by using the Biotope RIA kit with polyclonal antibody against human TGF-α (a gift from W. Hargreaves, Biotope), under denaturing conditions, as recommended by the supplier.

EGF binding competition assay and soft agar assay. Both EGF-binding competition and soft-agar assays have been described previously (1).

RESULTS

Rationale for mutations in the carboxyl terminus of TGF-α. Figure 1 shows the amino acid sequence of TGF-α in which the residues that are conserved among all the EGF-like peptides described thus far (EGF, TGF-α, and EGF-like viral proteins) are enclosed in bold circles. Among the 11 conserved amino acids, there are 6 Cys and 2 Gly residues, which presumably play essential roles in determining the overall conformation of the molecule. We concentrated on the two conserved amino acids in the carboxyl terminus, Asp-47 and Leu-48. The Asp in position 47 is conserved among the EGFs and TGF-α (human or murine), but not

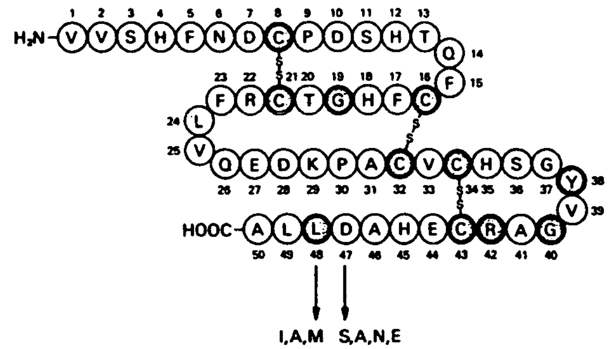

FIG. 1. Mutations in the carboxy terminus of human TGF-α. The amino acids conserved in all the family of EGF-like growth factors (human and murine EGFs and TGFs, as well as the gene products of the vaccinia virus [vaccinia growth factor], the Shope fibroma virus [Shope fibroma growth factor], and the myxoma virus [myxoma growth factor]) are enclosed in bold circles. The mutations of amino acids at positions 47 and 48 are indicated. Symbols: A, Ala; C, Cys; D, Asp; E, Glu; F, Phe; G, Gly; H, His; I, Ile; K, Lys; L, Leu; M, Met; N, Asn; P, Pro; Q, Gln; R, Arg; S, Ser; T, Thr; V, Val; W, Trp; Y, Tyr.

among the EGF-like viral proteins (vaccinia growth factor, Shope fibroma growth factor, or myxoma growth factor), whereas Leu 48 is conserved among all the EGF-like peptides so far described. In both mouse and human EGF, the two corresponding residues (Asp-46 and Leu-47) are located near the surface of the protein (8, 22, 22a). We designed a series of mutations in these two positions.

Asp-47 has been mutated to Glu, Asn, Ser, and Ala. Glu was chosen because it has the same charge as and a larger size than Asp; Asn has a similar side-chain structure, but is uncharged; Ser is smaller but still polar; Ala is smaller and nonpolar.

Leu 48 has been mutated to Ile and Met, which are both large, nonpolar residues like Leu, and to Ala, which is nonpolar but smaller. We introduced the chosen mutations by site-directed mutagenesis of the cloned human TGF-α gene, using synthetic oligonucleotides.

Construction of the yeast α mating pheromone–human TGF-α plasmid. The TGF-α expression vector pyTE1 (Fig. 2) was constructed by using plasmid YEp70αT (15) which contains the 2μm origin of replication and yeast *TRP1* gene for its replication and selective maintenance, respectively. YEp70αT also contains the yeast α-factor promoter, the α-factor prepro sequence coding for 89 amino acids, and the sequence for 3 amino acids resulting from the introduction of *Xba*I and *Eco*RI sites. The human mature TGF-α sequence (12) is contained in a 170-base-pair *Eco*RI fragment which includes an ATG (Met) codon preceding the sequence of TGF-α and a TAA (stop) codon followed by 8 nucleotides. This TGF-α sequence was inserted in the unique *Eco*RI site of YEp70αT. Clones with the proper orientation were selected, and DNA was isolated for yeast transformation.

Measurement of TGF-α secreted by *S. cerevisiae*. The amount of total proteins secreted into the yeast culture was 10 ± 1 μg/ml for wild-type as well as mutant TGF-α as determined by the method of Bradford (3). Before further purification was attempted, we wanted to determine whether the mutated TGF-α proteins were being secreted by the yeast. The low pH of the yeast medium, as well as the acidic proteins secreted in the yeast culture, precluded biological assay of secreted mutants. Therefore, immunological meth-

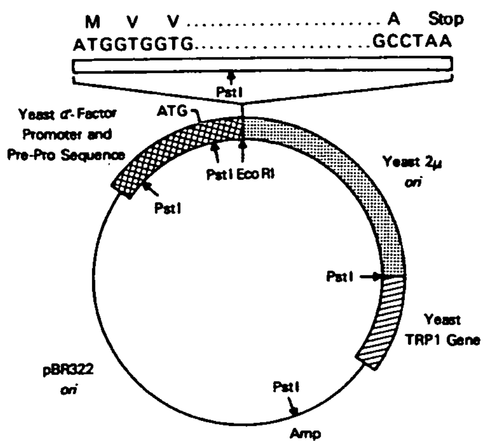

FIG. 2. Structure of the *S. cerevisiae* 8.2-kilobase shuttle vector pyTE1. The secretion of the TGF-α gene is under the transcriptional control of the yeast α-factor promoter and prepro sequence (▩). The yeast 2μm origin of replication (▩) and the selective yeast *TRP1* gene (▧) are indicated. The TGF-α gene, preceded by an initiation (ATG) codon and followed by a stop (TAA) codon, is inserted in the *Eco*RI site. Details are given in Materials and Methods and in Results.

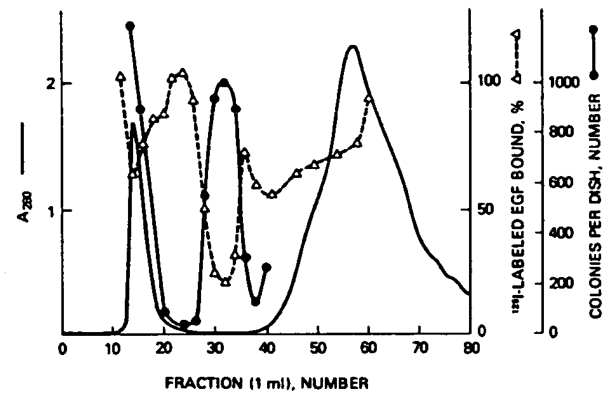

FIG. 3. Purification of yeast-secreted wild-type TGF-α. The purification procedure is described in Materials and Methods and in Results. Aliquots of every other fraction of the Bio-Gel P30 column were tested for their abilities to compete with ^{125}I-EGF for binding to the EGF receptor (Δ) and to induce colony formation (>62 μm) on NRK cells in soft agar in the presence of TGF-β (1 ng/ml) (●). The A_{280} profile of the proteins was determined (——).

ods were used. Wild-type and mutant TGF-α's were secreted at a level of 100 to 200 ng/ml and 10 to 500 ng/ml, respectively (as determined by radioimmunoassay with polyclonal antibody 34D). We thus estimate that the percentage of TGF-α secreted in the yeast culture is at least 1% of the total protein secreted. We cannot yet assess whether the variations in the levels of secretion of different mutant TGF-α proteins are real or whether one single-amino-acid substitution drastically affects the recognition by the antibody. The latter hypothesis is the more likely, since the use of another polyclonal antibody (Biotope) under denaturing conditions enabled us to detect certain TGF-α mutants (such as [Ala 47]–TGF-α, in which the amino acid in position 47 of human TGF-α is mutated to an alanine) that were poorly detected by 34D, under nondenaturing as well as denaturing conditions. After the amount of TGF-α mutant proteins was estimated, the medium was extensively dialyzed against 1 M acetic acid and lyophilized as described in Materials and Methods.

Partial purification of yeast-secreted TGF-α. Although the yeast shuttle vector was constructed in such a way as to secrete TGF-α with 8 amino acids fused to the N terminus, it was often observed that a significant fraction of the secreted TGF-α was in a higher-molecular-weight fragment corresponding to the size expected from an uncleaved (unprocessed) 92-amino-acid fusion protein. Since a Met had been introduced at the N terminus of TGF-α and since TGF-α contains no Met in its sequence, CNBr treatment could be used to cleave either of these 8- or 92-amino-acid N-terminal peptides and release the complete 50-amino-acid TGF-α. Indeed, CNBr treatment of yeast-secreted proteins resulted in the conversion of high-molecular-weight TGF-α into the 6,000-molecular-weight species, as revealed by Western immunoblot (data not shown).

CNBr-cleaved samples (see Materials and Methods) were purified on a Bio-Gel P30 column. Figure 3 shows the elution profile of the proteins, as well as the results of a radioreceptor assay and a soft-agar assay performed on aliquots of the column fractions. The A_{280} profile shows two major peaks of eluted proteins, one corresponding to the void volume and the other one to proteins of molecular weight <3,000. Aliquots of the column fractions were tested for their ability to compete with ^{125}I-EGF for binding to the receptor. The fractions that were the most active in this assay were located between the two major protein peaks, in an area where relatively few proteins eluted. Although some activity was found in the first protein peak (void volume), this was considerably reduced on treatment with stronger CNBr (data not shown).

Aliquots of each fraction were also tested for their ability to induce anchorage-independent growth of NRK cells in soft agar in the presence of TGF-β (1 ng/ml). The receptor binding and colony-forming activity superimposed almost exactly (Fig. 3). Analysis by polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis with silver staining, as well as by Western blot, of the column fractions shows that our purification procedure (CNBr cleavage followed by P30 sizing column) eliminates high-molecular-weight proteins (data not shown). Since pure TGF-α migrates in a broad band on sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (32), this technique cannot be used for proper assessment of the degree of separation of TGF-α from low-molecular-weight contaminating proteins. Nevertheless, within our detection levels the amounts of TGF-α present in the column fractions (detected by radioimmunoassay using the antibody from Biotope) correlated with the amounts observed on sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (data not shown).

Comparison of binding and colony-forming activity of TGF-α partially purified from yeast media. It was important to show that wild-type TGF-α secreted from *S. cerevisiae* had the expected biological properties and that its activity in soft-agar and radioreceptor assays was equivalent. For these assays, the amount of EGF-competing activity present in the most active fraction of the P30 column of wild-type TGF-α was measured in terms of EGF equivalents. The dilution curve had a slope that was parallel to that of the EGF standard. This value was also used to measure the colony-forming activity of the partially purified wild-type TGF-α (with EGF as a standard in the assay). The colony-forming activity of the partially purified wild-type TGF-α corre-

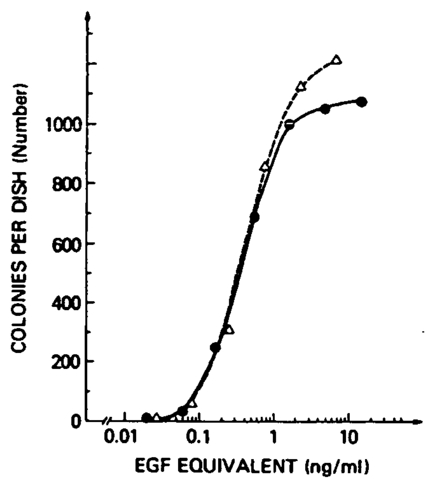

FIG. 4. Correlation between the activities in the binding and colony-forming assay for the partially purified wild-type TGF-α secreted by *S. cerevisiae*. The activity in the radioreceptor assay of the peak fraction from the P30 column was determined in EGF equivalent concentration. The value obtained was used for the soft-agar assay. Colonies of >62 μm (△) and the EGF standard (●) are shown.

sponded exactly to that of EGF (Fig. 4). Thus, we have partially purified a wild-type 50-amino-acid TGF-α showing the expected binding and colony-forming activities, which provides a reference substance for mutant TGF-αs that might show a dissociation of binding and colony-forming abilities.

Biological and biochemical activities of the partially purified TGF-α mutant proteins. Mutated TGF-αs were expressed by using the yeast system and partially purified on Bio-Gel P30 columns as described in Materials and Methods. Mutant TGF-αs were usually obtained from two different clones of yeast transformants. The CNBr-cleaved samples were purified through different Bio-Gel P30 columns for each mutant protein to avoid any possible contamination from one peptide to another. The purification profiles observed with the mutant TGF-αs were similar to those obtained for the wild-type TGF-α. Aliquots of the P30 column fractions were tested in radioreceptor and soft-agar assays. For all mutant proteins, the highest activity in both assays was always found in the same fraction of the Bio-Gel P30 column effluent (peak fraction). Extensive purification of a series of mutant proteins for screening purposes is not practical. Therefore, we needed a quantitation system that would allow us to compare mutant proteins with each other. Thus, the amount of TGF-α present in the peak fraction was estimated by radioimmunoassay with an antiserum to native TGF-α (obtained from W. Hargreaves), under denaturing conditions, as described in Materials and Methods. All values given in Table 1 were obtained from the peak fraction.

The controls done with the wild-type TGF-α showed (Fig. 4; Table 1) that binding and transforming activity were equivalent. The yeast vector without a TGF-α insert did not secrete any EGF-like proteins, as determined by both radioreceptor and soft-agar assay.

Two types of results were obtained upon assay of mutant proteins having different amino acid substitutions at Asp-47. In both [Ala-47]-TGF-α and [Asn-47]-TGF-α, binding ability was retained. Soft-agar and radioreceptor activities correlated for [Asn-47]-TGF-α; there was a lower value for

TABLE 1. Biological and biochemical activities of mutant TGF-α proteins secreted by *S. cerevisiae* and partially purified

Insert in the yeast expression vector	EGF equivalence (ng/ml) in:		Amt of TGF-α (ng/ml) in radioimmunoassay
	Radioreceptor assay	Soft-agar assay	
Wild-type TGF-α	700	700	2,000
	400	300	ND[a]
None	0	0	0
[Ala-47]-TGF-α	100	44	220
	66	48	ND
[Asn-47]-TGF-α	80	72	180
	75	72	525
[Glu-47]-TGF-α	3	3	42
[Ser-47]-TGF-α	10	4	60
[Ala-48]-TGF-α	0	0	16
	0	0	220
[Ile-48]-TGF-α	4	12	470
	2	7	490
[Met-48]-TGF-α	2	8	453
	0.5	2	420

[a] ND, Not determined.

colony-forming activity than for EGF-binding competition for [Ala-47]-TGF-α. [Ser-47]-TGF-α and [Glu-47]-TGF-α appeared to have lower activities in both assays than either wild-type TGF-α or [Ala-47]-TGF-α and [Asn-47]-TGF-α. These results indicate that neither the carboxyl charge nor the polarity of Asp-47 is essential for biological activity.

The effects of mutation of Leu-48, one of the 11 amino acids perfectly conserved among all the EGFs, TGF-αs, and viral EGF-like proteins, are dramatic. [Ala-48]-TGF-α totally lacked binding and colony-forming activity. [Ile-48]-TGF-α and [Met-48]-TGF-α had very little biological activity compared with wild-type TGF-α. Another substitution, [Met-48]-TGF-α, resulted in a truncated mutant lacking the last 2 amino acids and having a substitution of Leu to homoserine at position 48 following treatment with CNBr. Alternatively, if [Met-48]-TGF-α was not treated with CNBr, fusion proteins of TGF-α (mutated to Met in position 48) with 8 or 92 amino acids attached at the N terminus were obtained. Very low activities in binding and soft-agar assays were found for these mutants, whether or not they were cleaved with CNBr. Experiments on EGF and TGF-α have shown that an N-terminal extension does not markedly modify EGF-binding activity (12, 26). Therefore, the loss of activity obtained with [Met-48]-TGF-α that has not been CNBr treated was probably due to the mutation itself and not to the N-terminally extended fusion protein. We do not know whether the loss of activity observed with the TGF-α shortened to 48 amino acids and having a substitution of Leu-48 to homoserine is due only to the mutation or also to the lack of the last 2 amino acids.

The data obtained by radioimmunoassay on the partially purified wild-type and mutant TGF-α show that the amount of TGF-α detected was always higher than the amount determined by measurement of biological activity. This may be due to the presence in the fraction of a certain percentage of incorrectly folded TGF-α that might be recognized in a

radioimmunoassay under denaturing conditions but would not be biologically active. None of the mutant proteins seemed to be present in amounts equivalent to those observed for wild-type TGF-α in the partially purified fractions (whether radioimmunoassay, radioreceptor, or soft-agar assay was used for quantitation). It is not clear whether consistently less TGF-α was produced by the mutant constructs than by the wild type or whether the secreted mutant proteins were simply less well recognized by the antibody. Because of these uncertainties, the biological activities of the different mutant proteins cannot be accurately related to a known amount of mutant TGF-α protein. Even though radioimmunoassay should be used with caution for a quantitative evaluation of mutant TGF-α proteins, a positive reaction demonstrates that immunoreactive TGF-α was present in the P30 peak fraction for each mutant. Therefore, the fact that one of the mutant proteins ([Ala-48]-TGF-α) is biologically inactive can be attributed to the mutation itself, and not to the lack of production of the mutant protein by the yeast or its loss through purification. However, if the mutant proteins are in fact as immunoreactive as the wild type, then [Ala-47]-TGF-α and [Asn-47]-TGF-α are as active as wild-type TGF-α and [Glu-47]-TGF-α and [Ser-47]-TGF-α are less active; in contrast, [Ile-48]-TGF-α and [Met-48]-TGF-α are almost inactive. The differences between mutation of Asp-47 and Leu-48 would then be even more striking.

DISCUSSION

TGF-α shows sequence homologies with EGF, and both growth factors share the same cellular receptors (20). Even though EGF was discovered 25 years ago (7) and its properties have been extensively studied over the years (5), the binding site of EGF to its receptor has still not been determined, and the relationship between structure and function of EGF/TGF-α is still to be discovered. Particularly, we do not know whether binding to the receptor and signal transduction occur through one or more domains of the molecule or through which amino acids. We approached the question by performing site-directed mutagenesis of TGF-α and focused our attention on two adjacent amino acids, Asp-47 and Leu-48, located in the carboxy terminus and highly conserved in the EGF-like family of peptides. Unexpectedly, these two amino acids showed very different sensitivities to mutation and particularly to a substitution to Ala: [Ala-47]-TGF-α retained binding and colony-forming activities, whereas [Ala-48]-TGF-α completely lost both activities. These data show that Asp-47 and Leu-48 play very different roles in defining the structure and/or the activity of TGF-α. The other mutations performed on Asp-47 were substitutions to Asn, Ser, and Glu. [Asn-47]-TGF-α, like [Ala-47]-TGF-α, was active in binding and induction of colony formation, but [Ser-47]-TGF-α and [Glu-47]-TGF-α showed weaker growth factor activities. These results indicate that neither the carboxyl charge nor the polarity of Asp-47 is essential for biological activity. Interestingly, two of the EGF-like viral proteins, myxoma growth factor and Shope fibroma growth factor (6, 30), have Asn instead of Asp in position 47; we have shown that [Asn-47]-TGF-α retains biological activity.

Substitution of Leu-48 to Met and Ile led to mutant proteins with very low activities, whereas substitution to Ala led to complete loss of activity. We did not expect that a mutation of Leu to Ile (which have similar sizes and polarities) would cause such a strong effect. Thus, Leu-48, which is conserved perfectly among all the EGF-like peptides, seems to be essential, through its exact geometry, for the biological activity of TGF-α.

The mutant proteins tested so far, when active, showed parallel behaviors in binding and colony formation. Some mutant proteins lost all activities, and we assume that the binding capacity has been lost. We have not been able to dissociate the binding and colony-forming abilities by using any of the present series of mutant proteins, and it is necessary to screen more of them in search of an antagonist of TGF-α.

Results relating to the biological activity of EGF show that derivatives of mouse EGF and human EGF (EGF 1-47) lacking the carboxy-terminal 6 amino acids as a result of enzymatic digestion are less potent than the intact molecule in mitogenic stimulation of fibroblasts, but retain full biological activity in in vivo assays (inhibition of gastric acid secretion) (16). On the other hand, naturally occurring truncated forms of rat EGF, which lack the carboxy-terminal 5 amino acids (rEGF 2-48) are as potent as mouse EGF (mEGF 1-53) in receptor-binding and mitogenic assays (27). We do not know whether the discrepancies observed are due to the origin of the molecule (artificial or natural) or to the type of bioassay used. In any event, all of these EGF-related molecules, which are shorter than mouse or human EGF, still retain Leu-47. We have shown that in TGF-α, the corresponding residue, Leu-48, is critical for the biological activity.

Recent data on the three-dimensional structure of mouse EGF obtained by nuclear magnetic resonance show that even though Asp-46 and Leu-47 (Asp-47 and Leu-48 in TGF-α) are both solvent accessible (8, 22, 22a), their side chains point in opposite directions in the beta-sheet structure. Therefore, the role of these adjacent amino acids in the structure and, consequently, the function of EGF might be very different. Our data show that the amino acids Asp-47 and Leu-48 of TGF-α are not equally important for the biological activity of TGF-α, despite their conservation among the EGF-like peptides. From the dramatic loss in biological activity which is characteristic of mutation of Leu-48, we also suggest that this residue is involved in binding to the cellular receptors either by direct interaction with the receptor or by providing the proper conformation to the molecule.

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